BLS CENTRAL INTRANET

Matter of Style

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A Matter of Style at the Bureau of Labor Statistics

Third Edition

April 2012

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Preface

Welcome to the third edition of *A Matter of Style* at the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

This style guide, prepared by the editorial staff in the Office of Publications and Special Studies (OPUBSS), presents guidelines on common issues that authors encounter in developing written and graphical presentations of data for publication by the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS). The content includes current information on editorial submission, production processes, and formatting. The guidelines also are intended to ensure reasonable levels of continuity and consistency within and across BLS publications.

Matters of style involve matters of choice. The rules of grammar are fairly straightforward, but they may not provide a definite answer in a specific instance. The rules of style—how to write, structure, and format your thoughts and findings in a clear manner—are even less definitive. In such cases, we hope *A Matter of Style* gives authors useful guidance. This style guide is by no means comprehensive. Answers not found in it may be found in one or more of the sources listed in the section titled "Sources of Style Standards."

In preparing this guide, the committee relied primarily on three sources: the 1999 edition of the BLS publication *A Matter of Style*, the 2008 edition of the U.S. Government Printing Office Style Manual, and the 16th edition of The *Chicago Manual of Style*. The sources listed in "Sources of Style Standards" cover a wide variety of topics on grammar and style, and may prove useful to authors. In addition, one of the best sources for assistance is an editor in OPUBSS, so feel free to contact us with any questions.

We look forward to working with our BLS colleagues in maintaining excellence in the Bureau's written communications.

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The Publishing Process

The U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) is one of the most prominent and active information-producing institutions in the world. Its employees prepare and publish a steady stream of data and reports on labor market activity, working conditions, and price changes. By maintaining the highest standards of accuracy, timeliness, transparency of method, and other attributes of a successful statistical agency, the Bureau's reputation for reliability and integrity is well established.

One vital aspect of upholding that reputation is the quality of the Bureau's communications with the public. The editorial review process, starting in the BLS program offices and ending in the Office of Publications and Special Studies (OPUBSS, or the Office of Publications), is a time-honored method of ensuring that the highest editorial quality for all publications is met. This section provides a brief overview of the general publishing process.

TYPES OF PUBLICATIONS

The Bureau publishes its information in many forms. Following are the most common:

- News releases
- Periodicals
- Reports
- Summaries
- Flyers, brochures, and pamphlets

Nearly all BLS publications are posted on the BLS website, and some publications are printed.

OPERATING PROCEDURES

Guidelines for authors

Different BLS publications are intended for different groups of readers. These groups vary from students to professional economists, and authors are expected to write with the needs and interests of their audience in mind. For example, students may not understand certain economic terms. The guidelines that follow reflect the Bureau's longstanding concern with presenting the results of BLS research clearly and understandably.

Before submitting the manuscript

Prior to submitting a manuscript to the Office of Publications, authors should

- Be selective.
- Organize.
- Write simply, directly, clearly, and precisely.
- Maintain consistency in voice and tense.
- Use headings to introduce major topics.
- Prepare a manuscript according to Office of Publications specifications.
- Proofread and fact-check all material.
- Prepare all required forms.

Be selective. Your first—and often most difficult— task as a writer is selecting the right material. An abundance of information is available on most topics, but a writer only needs material that helps to develop and inform a thesis. The act of focusing the material enhances the reader's understanding of your subject and spares the reader the task of sifting through insignificant or irrelevant information.

What to do with all that interesting material that isn't essential to the main argument of your article? Consider developing it into a separate article or using an appendix to showcase supporting text or tables.

Organize. Construct the document such that the narrative flows logically from sentence to sentence, paragraph to paragraph, and topic to topic so that the reader can better understand the points you are making. One good way to organize a report or an article is to present the big picture first in order to provide context for the reader; it's hard to absorb details if you don't know why they've been given to you. In the lead paragraph, state the principal findings. In the next paragraph, tell the reader what's to follow, detailing the order in which your points will be presented; this "roadmap" paragraph usually uses the present tense, not the future.

Write simply, directly, clearly, and precisely. The job of the writer is to convey the correct meaning—especially of terms, concepts, and the assumptions of the analysis. Writing is successful when the reader is able to fully understand what the writer had in mind.

Maintain consistency in person and tense. Whether using the first or third person, do so throughout. Also, be careful about changing tenses.

Use headings to introduce major topics. Headings are an important tool for organization.

- Use headings to break up your document into manageable sections.
- Create headings that are brief and to the point. Good headings tell the reader what to expect. Headings have different levels (for example, headings and subheadings), each with its own format. Follow the structure of headings in the publication to which you are submitting your document.

Prepare a manuscript according to Office of Publications specifications. Prepare your manuscript in Microsoft Word. Tables, charts, maps, and other figures should be submitted in Microsoft Excel if possible and should not be embedded in the Word file. (See "Tables and Exhibits," pp. 23–33, and "Information Graphics," pp. 34–47, for the proper formatting of tables and charts, respectively.) Use the default setting in Word and Excel, and do not put an additional line break between paragraphs. Put only one space after ending punctuation (period, question mark, colon, etc.). Office of Publications staff will format your manuscript for layout in InDesign. When a manuscript is ready for editorial review, it should be submitted to the Office of Publications via email.

Proofread and fact-check all material. Before submitting your manuscript, make sure that it has been thoroughly reviewed and checked for typos, factual discrepancies, and overall sense. When reading for sense, confirm that everything flows logically from section to section and that your analysis substantiates your conclusions.

Prepare all required forms. All BLS publications need supporting documentation. For many publications, OPUBSS does the posting on behalf of the program office. For the rest, the program office would be informed that it is responsible for submitting a Form 1 or Form 2 (the latter rarely required) toward the end of the editorial review process. These forms must be submitted to web_review@bls.gov and are available at [redacted]

For jobs that are to be printed, please submit the following documents:

- Printing-Reproduction Requisition (Form D/L 1-72), available online at [redacted]
- USDL Delivery Instructions (Form D/L 1-298); this form contains all the regional office addresses and is available online at http://www.bls.gov/iif/regions.htm
- BLS Printing Delivery Form for Postal Square Building. Please arrange to have at least 10 copies delivered to the Office of Publications in room 2850.
- Statement of Ownership, Management, and Circulation. This form is required by the U.S. Postal Service for certain kinds of printed publications and is updated on a schedule set by the Postal Service.

Items that will be for sale also require a Notification of Intent to Publish (GPO Form 3868), available at http://www.gpo.gov/pdfs/customers/sfas/3868.pdf .

If you want special graphics (i.e., graphics that require the intervention of Office of Publications graphic artists), you must submit an Audio Visual/Graphics Requisition (USDL Form 1-111), available online at [redacted] .

All major publications require a dissemination plan when they are submitted to the Office of Publications. Complete instructions on how to prepare a dissemination plan, as well as the dissemination plan form, are on the BLS intranet at [redacted] .

Submit the complete manuscript to the Office of Publications

Products should be submitted to the Office of Publications only after they have been reviewed and cleared according to the procedures put in place by each originating office, typically by a division chief, an assistant commissioner, or an associate commissioner.

Several things happen to manuscripts submitted for editorial review and subsequent design and layout. First, they are logged in by the Office of Publications and reviewed to ensure that all required documentation is attached or will be provided. Then, they move through editing (typically including author–editor conferences), and layout.

A complete manuscript typically includes the following:

- A title page showing exact title; Department of Labor and BLS identifications, including names of the Secretary and Commissioner; anticipated publication date; and a placeholder for bulletin or report identification number
- Title of article or other publication
- Names of authors
- Job title of each author, contact information, and office or organization affiliation
- Preface. Where applicable, the Office of Publications will include the following statement:
- Information in this publication is available to sensory-impaired individuals. Voice phone: (202) 691-5200; TDD message referral phone: 1 (800) 877-8339. This material is in the public domain and, with appropriate credit, may be reproduced without permission.
- Table of contents, showing chapter titles, the major headings throughout the publication, titles of charts, tables, etc., and appendixes
- Electronic copies of the text, tables, charts, etc.
- Relevant requisitions and delivery instructions, and the dissemination plan
- All supervisory and office clearances

Please request the type of publication in which you would like your material to appear (*Monthly Labor Review* article, report, bulletin, brochure, etc.). Failure to submit a complete manuscript can delay the production process.

Editing

Ordinarily, manuscripts are sent to the branch that handles special publications or the branch that publishes the *Monthly Labor Review*. There, the supervisory staff reviews the manuscripts and assigns them to an editor. Manuscripts that are highly analytical in content or present data from a new survey are read for content by the Associate Commissioner of the Office of Publications and the Chief of the Division of Publishing.

After receiving the manuscript from the editor

After the editor returns the edited manuscript, authors should

- Review the edited manuscript.
- Communicate with the editor to discuss edits and resolve questions.

Review the edited manuscript to discuss edits and resolve questions. Read through the document, reviewing the edits and responding to questions and comments. Be sure to clear any new changes with your supervisor.

Communicate with the editor. Before your manuscript is sent to the visual information specialist for layout, the editor assigned to review it will confer with you. At this time, you will have the opportunity to review the editor's comments and agree on improvements to the manuscript. Once this step is complete, the document is ready to be laid out.

Layout and review

Text and graphical elements are laid out in publication format, proofread by the editor, and then sent to the author for review. The final step before publication is a review by Office of Publications management.

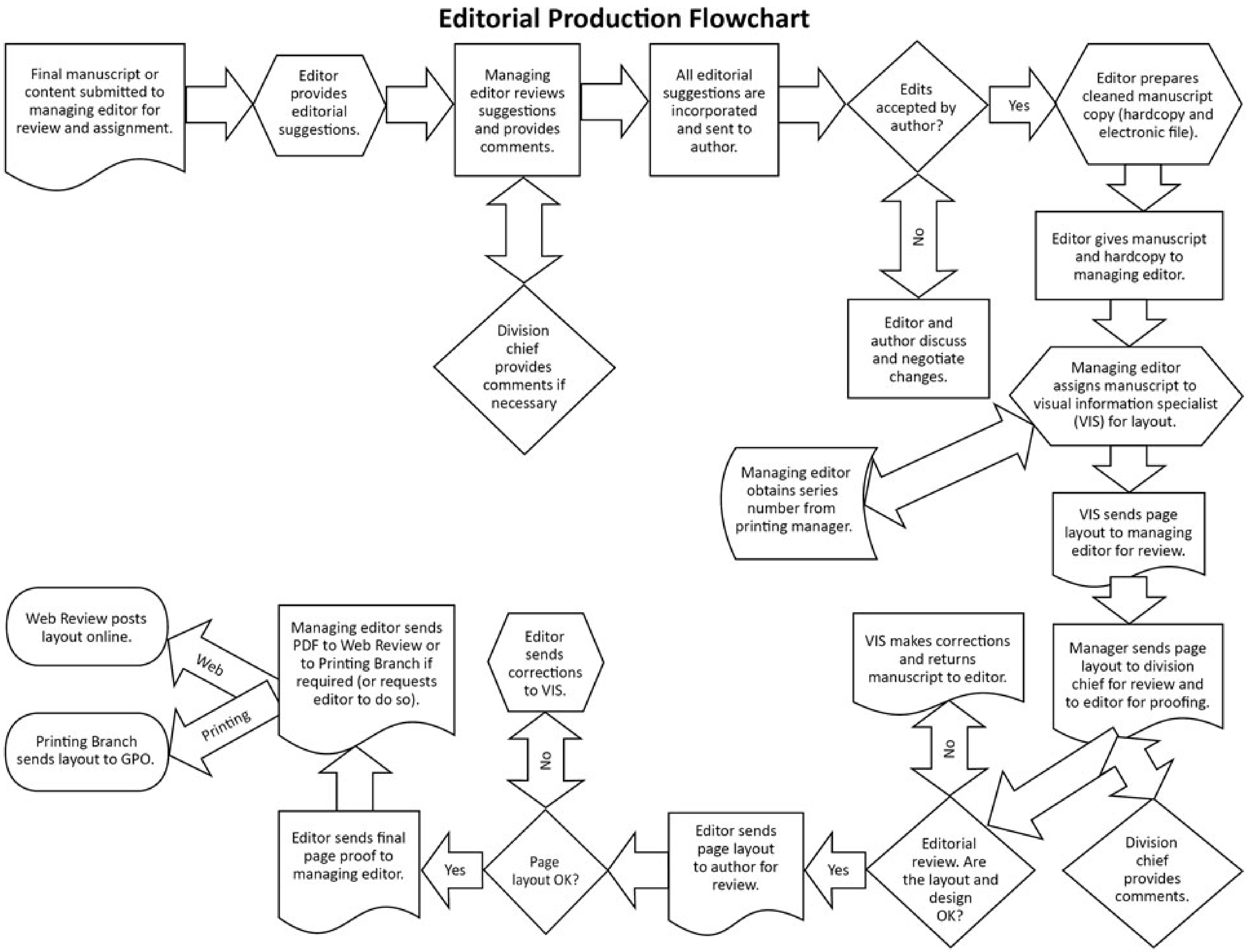
After receiving page proofs from the editor

Review the page proofs. After layout, additional changes should be held to a minimum. Extensive additions to the text at the proof stage are to be avoided. To ensure that your published documents are accurate, proofread the laid-out pages in their entirety. What should one look for while proofreading? Pay attention to the following:

- Spelling of names and places
- Accuracy of the data placed in the text
- Capitalization, punctuation, and grammar
- Typographical errors
- Wrong font style and size
- Hyphenation of words
- Consistency of text with tables, charts, and other graphics
- Accuracy and appearance of tables, charts, and other graphics

Some publications may require a second proofreading—for example, if the author has substantive changes after the first proofread. During the second round, make sure that all changes from the previous round have been incorporated.

The following flowchart depicts the editorial production process:



Grammar and Style

Authors occasionally face stylistic and grammatical difficulties in writing and preparing material for publication. For this reason, we have included guidelines for the most common issues that authors encounter in writing for publication. Though not exhaustive, these guidelines present the preferred practices of BLS, and following them will ensure clear and consistent publications.

Our main guide for grammar and usage rules is the *U S Government Printing Office (GPO) Style Manual*. For those issues not covered in the *GPO Style Manual*,

we turn to *The Chicago Manual of Style*. (A more complete list of suggested sources appears on page 68 of this guide.)

ABBREVIATIONS

Abbreviations, including acronyms, are common among many private organizations and government agencies, and readers often recognize and accept many of these terms as readily as the full name. However, when using an abbreviation in text, spell out the word at the first occurrence in the document and follow the spelled-out word with the abbreviation in parentheses. Subsequent uses of the abbreviation versus the spelled-out word depend on the length of the document. In shorter documents, with few or no sections, use the abbreviation throughout after the first use of the spelled-out word. In lengthy documents, consider using the spelled-out word at the beginning of later sections, especially if the reader might find the first occurrence of the abbreviation difficult to locate or might not easily recall the meaning of the abbreviation.

Example:
The National Hockey League (NHL) is the world's premier professional ice hockey league. A majority of the players in the NHL are Canadian citizens.

Do not use an abbreviation when the spelled-out word appears only once in the entire document, except when the abbreviation is well known but the spelled-out word is not. In the case of a long, unwieldy name, use the abbreviation or an appropriate substitute. Spelling out a long name numerous times can detract strongly from readability.

Example:
The American Board of Podiatric Orthopedics and Primary Podiatric Medicine, ABPOPPM, or, simply, the Board.

When abbreviating Bureau of Labor Statistics, use "BLS" when an adjective is desired and "BLS" or "the Bureau" when a noun is desired.

When an abbreviation follows an indefinite article, the choice of *a* or *an* is determined by the way the abbreviation would be read. Acronyms are read as words and, except when used adjectivally, are rarely preceded by *a*, *an*, or *the* ("member nations of NATO"). Initialisms are read as a series of letters and are often preceded by an article ("member nations of the EU").

Apostrophes should be used with acronyms *only to show possessive case*. An exception: BLS never takes an apostrophe.

For other rules concerning the use and punctuation of abbreviations, see chapter 9 in the *GPO Style Manual*.

Initials used to designate governmental agencies or programs and other organized bodies are capitalized, generally omitting periods.

Example:
Bureau of Labor Statistics: BLS
International Labour Organization: ILO
American Federation of Labor and Congress of Industrial Organizations: AFL-CIO
National Labor Relations Board: NLRB
United Auto Workers: UAW
Consumer Price Index: CPI
Producer Price Index: PPI

but United States: U.S.; United Nations: U.N.

The abbreviation "U.S." is used in the adjective position, but is spelled out when used as a noun.

Example:
U.S. foreign policy, foreign policy of the United States.

CAPITALIZATION

Avoid excessive capitalization. BLS generally follows the capitalization rules listed in chapter 3 of the *GPO Style Manual*. For example, use initial caps for race and ethnicity groups such as "Black" and "White" when they are used as nouns; otherwise use lowercase. (For a more comprehensive list of rules, see the *GPO Style Manual*, chapter 4, online at www.gpoaccess.gov/stylemanual/.)

Some BLS exceptions to GPO style are as follows (shown as they should appear):

- coast—capitalized as names of U.S. regions (*Example:* East Coast, West Coast, Gulf Coast); lowercase as common noun (*Example:* coast of Maine, cities on the coast)
- federal government
- GI Bill of Rights
- nation
- state (*Example:* New York State, state of New York, State of Israel, State of the Union Address)
- webpage
- website

Formal names of BLS indexes should be capitalized.

Example:
Consumer Price Index for All Urban Consumers
Consumer Price Index for Urban Wage Earners and Clerical Workers
Producer Price Index for Finished Goods
Producer Price Index for Intermediate Goods
Hourly Earnings Index
Employment Cost Index

But informal names, such as the index, the price index, the all-items index, the industrial chemicals index, and all other indexes are lowercase.

Survey names: Consumer Expenditure Survey, Current Population Survey, Current Employment Statistics survey, *but* the survey

Program names: Capitalize program names, but not the word "program" (unless it is part of the name).
Example: Occupational Employment Statistics program, International Price Program, Survey of Income and Program Participation

Note that names of industries and occupations are lowercase.

COMPOUNDING

Compounds are unions of two or more words, either with or without a hyphen. They convey an idea that is not as clearly or quickly conveyed by the component words in unconnected succession. The hyphen in a compound is a mark of punctuation that unites and also separates the component words, thus easing understanding, aiding readability, and ensuring correct pronunciation.

Rules for compounding cannot be applied inflexibly. Exceptions must be allowed so that general good form will not be offended. However, current language trends point to closing up words that, through frequent use, have become associated in the reader's mind as single units of thought. More information is available in the *GPO Style Manual*, chapter 6.

Omit the hyphen

- *When words appear in regular order* and the omission causes no ambiguity in sense or sound
  Example: Day laborer, real estate, training ship
- *In a two-word modifier*, the first part of which is a comparative, a superlative, or an adverb ending in "ly"
  Example: Better organized plan, best known author, seasonally adjusted; but lighter-than-air craft, higher-than-market price, well-intended idea
- *In a compound whose meaning is clear (though whether the meaning is clear is often a matter of opinion)*
  Example: Bituminous coal industry, weather map data, natural selection mechanism

- *In compound predicate modifiers*
  Example: The effects were far reaching. This material is fire tested. The plan was well thought out. The house is close by.
- *In certain words commonly used by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, even when they are unit modifiers*
  Example: African American, private industry, collective bargaining, defined benefit pension plan.

Include the hyphen

- *When a compound noun that is ordinarily written as one word is preceded by an adjective* that modifies the first part of the compound. In this case, separate the compound and insert the hyphen.
  Example: Ironworker, *but* structural-iron worker; boatbuilding, *but* ship- and boat building
- *When two or more hyphenated compounds have a common basic element* and this element is omitted in all but the last term.
  Example: 8-, 10-, and 16-foot boards; long- and short-term loans, not long and short-term loans
- *When a preposition is involved* in the compound term.
  Example: fee-for-service health plan; once-in-a-lifetime opportunity; seat-of-the-pants operation; fly-by-night company
- *In adjective compounds* with a numerical first element, even when that element is negative.
  Example: 8-hour day; 6-cent-an-hour increase; –5-mm change
  Note. Some may want to avoid the close-by occurrence of the en dash (a short dash, longer than the hyphen but not as long as the long, or em, dash) and the hyphen by recasting the latter phrase to “a change of –5 mm.”

Prefixes and combining forms

- Treat these as one word. *Exception*: Use a hyphen (1) With a capitalized word, (2) when necessary to prevent mispronunciation, and (3) to distinguish among homonyms.
  Example: semiofficial; anti-Soviet; co-op; re-cover (cover again); un-ionized (not ionized), as opposed to unionized (belonging to a union)
- In most instances, treat as one word compounds *beginning* with certain nouns. Among these nouns are book, house, school, shop, and work. A list of such words is found in section 6.10 of the 2008 edition of the *GPO Style Manual*.
  Example: Workweek, schoolhouse
- In most instances, treat as one word compounds *ending* in certain words. Among these words are force, keeper, keeping, maker, making, power, room, shop, store, ward, wide, woman, wood, work, worker, yard.
  Example: piecework, workforce, *but* office worker

Compounds and age

Follow the usual rules for hyphenation with adjectives (unit modifiers) and for absence of hyphenation with predicates (when the word or phrase follows the verb). Thus,

. . . is largest among *16- to 24-year-olds* . . . an *18-year-old girl*
. . . among *25- to 34-year-old men*
. . . in the *65-and-over group*
. . . an average *20-year-old woman*
. . . the *18-year-old* group
. . . the group of *24-year-olds* went . . . the *34-year-olds* were

but

. . . among women *ages 16 to 19* . . . a girl *18 years old*
. . . among women *25 to 34 years of age*
. . . men under *age 35*
. . . children *ages 3 to 13* whose
. . . births per 1,000 women ages *15 to 44 years*
. . . 6 out of 10 were *45 years old or older*
. . . with no children under *18 years of age*

. . . below *age 6*
. . . those *16 to 17 years* were . . . men age *55 to 64*
. . . *65 years of age and over*
. . . women *25 to 34 years* who

Use *and* or *or*; *older* or *over*; and *younger* or *under* at the author's discretion. For example, say either *75 years and older* or *75 years or older*; either *55 years and older* or *55 years and over*; and *either 16 years and younger* or *16 years and under*. Use or leave out *years* and *age*, *ages*, or *of age* at the author's discretion. For example, say 25 to 34 years, age *25 to 34 years*, *age 25 to 34*, or *25 to 34 years of age*. Do not use *aged*.

Compounds and percent

Treat the use of *percent* the same way as that of *adjective compounds* with a numerical first element. Thus,

. . . followed *a 0 9-percent jump*
. . . as *the 10 2-percent rate* registered
. . . *a 13 5-percent rate* of advance
. . . due to *a 2 0-percent decline/decrease/increase/drop/etc*.
. . . *an 8 0-percent surge/climb/etc*

but

. . . The index *was 2 0 percent higher/lower* than
. . . *an increase of 0 4 percent* in
. . . decreased *0 2 percent* after *rising 0 1 percent*
. . . at *a rate of 2 3 percent* from
. . . *dropped* 0.2 percent, seasonally adjusted
. . . after *rising 2 2 percent* in May *and 5 2 percent* in . . . .

And, of course, do the same even when the numerical element is negative—for example,
"a –2-percent change."

Note. Some may want to avoid the close-by occurrence of the en dash and the hyphen by recasting the phrase to "a change of –2 percent."

There are, of course, many other compounds. For a list of the most common ones, see the *GPO Style Manual*, chapter 7.

COMMONLY CONFUSED WORDS

On occasion, even the best writers will use one word where another is intended. This section presents some commonly misused words and briefly discusses their correct usage.

Between* and *from

When discussing time, we often describe what happened *between* one time and another or *between* one period and another. Or we may talk about what happened *from* one time to another or *from* one period to another. *Between* is always used with *and*; *from* is always used with *to*. Thus, we never say "between 1980 to 2000." Note that we use *from*, and not between, when the times or periods are consecutive. Hence, we have "*from* 1979 to 1980" rather than "*between* 1979 and 1980"and "*from* 1980–1981" to "1981–1982" rather than "*between* 1980–1981" and "1981–1982."

Compare* and *contrast

Things may be compared in two different ways. In one way, one thing is likened to another, in which case to is the preposition used. Thus, we say, "A $40-a-week salary in 1950 can be compared to a salary of $400 a week in 1990." Here, the point is that the two salaries are *just like each other* in that they each had the same purchasing power.

In the second way, two things are evaluated against each other with respect to certain qualities, and various similarities and difference may emerge. In that case, the preposition *with* is used. Hence, we say "The unemployment rate in 2010 was 9.0 percent, compared with 4.8 percent a decade earlier." Here, we are not likening the two unemployment rates to each other. To the contrary, they obviously differ, and we are saying that a comparison will reveal that difference.

In the vast majority of cases *compared* with is the correct phrase to use.

Comprise* and *compose

Comprise means "to encompass" or "to consist of." It takes *x, y,* and *z* to *compose* a whole, but the whole comprises (encompasses) x, y, and z. "The United States *comprises* 50 states and several territories." "The five boroughs of Manhattan, Brooklyn, Queens, Staten Island, and the Bronx *compose* New York City." On the other hand, "New York City comprises the five boroughs . . . ." In short, *the parts compose the whole and the whole comprises the parts*.

Never use the phrase "is comprised of."

Fewer* and *less

Even the best writers often misuse *fewer* and *less*. Fewer is reserved for things (and people) that can be *counted* (denoted by "count nouns"); *less* is used for nondiscrete items of measurable extent (denoted by "mass nouns"). For example, we say "There is less water in my glass than in yours," but "I had two fewer glasses of water than you." Usually, *less than* is used before a noun that denotes a measure of time, amount, or distance when that measure is taken as a distinct whole: *less than 3 days, less than 1 week, less than $400, less than 50 miles, less than 50 percent;* but *fewer than 400 dollar bills*. The reason for saying, for example, "less than 3 days" is that the speaker probably means any amount of time less than 3 days, such as 1.8 days or 2.4 days; he or she probably is not referring to days in discrete units. Similarly, if someone receives *fewer than 400 dollar bills*, there is no option of receiving $395.24. But *less* than $400 leaves open the possibility for an amount that is not countable in whole-dollar units.

That* and *which

There is a simple way to remember the distinction between these two words: *which* clauses take commas and *that* clauses do not. If the sentence retains its essential meaning with the clause left out, then the clause is a which clause, with commas before and after it. If the sentence loses its essential meaning with the clause left out, it's a *that* clause and takes no comma before or after it.

To test whether to use "which" or "that," leave out the clause that begins with "which" or "that" to see whether the sentence retains its essential meaning.

Here is an example of a "which" clause:

> The CPI-U, which measures the prices paid by urban consumers for a market basket of consumer goods and services, rose 1 percentage point last year.

When the "which" clause is omitted, the sentence becomes "The CPI-U rose 1 percentage point last year" and its essential meaning is retained.

Here is an example of a "that" clause:

> The official unemployment rate that is used to measure the country's discouraged workers is designated U–4.

When the "that" clause is omitted, the sentence becomes "The official unemployment rate is designated U–4" and does not retain its essential meaning. (The sentence, in fact, is false, as the official unemployment rate is designated U–3.)

An exception to the preceding guide is the "restrictive which" clause, in which "which" is used without a comma when there is a nearby "that."

Here is an example of a "restrictive which" clause:

> The famous U.S. document which says that all men are created equal is the Declaration of Independence.

The sentence had been "The famous U.S. document that says that all men are created equal is the Declaration of Independence," but it was edited to avoid having two instances of "that" near each other.

Those that* and *those which

Following the distinction between restrictive and nonrestrictive usage, many writers believe that *those* that is correct usage and *those which* is incorrect. In reality, the situation is just the opposite. To see why in this very special case, ask yourself, What is the singular of *those that*? Clearly, it is *that that*; thus, following Shakespeare, we might say, "That that we call a rose by any other name would smell as sweet." But Shakespeare did not say that; instead, he said, "That which we call a rose by any other name would smell as sweet." This suggests, and indeed it is so, that there is no singular *that that*; the singular is *that which*. But then, where there is no singular, there can be no plural; in other words, *those that* is incorrect usage.

Now ask yourself, What is the singular of *those which*? Clearly, it is *that which*, and Shakespeare, of course, knew it. Consequently, if the correct singular term is *that which*, then the correct plural is *those which*, and this term, not *those* that, should be used in writing.

While* and *although

The conjunction *while* is used primarily to mean "during an interval of time." Sometimes, however, *while* is substituted for connectives such as *and, but, although, and whereas*. Used this way, *while* may cause ambiguity, but often the context is clear enough that no ambiguity ensues. Accordingly, the use of *while* as a substitute for any of these terms is acceptable, as long as the context makes the meaning clear.

Here is an example of an acceptable use of *while* to mean "at the same time as":

While unemployment rose, the number of people on food stamps increased as well.

It is clear that the author cannot have intended the *while* to mean "although" or "whereas," because the sentence cites an expected parallel (when unemployment rises, more people are out of work and so may need food stamps to purchase food) and "although" or "whereas" signals a contrast.

Here is an example of an acceptable use of *while* to mean "although":

While separations play a role in unemployment, the more important factor is less hiring.

Again, the meaning is clear: "Although separations play a role in unemployment, the more important factor is less hiring." *While, although, and whereas* are all appropriate word choices in this example.

Here is an example in which the use of while makes the meaning *unclear*:

While unemployment rose, gross domestic product increased as well.

The author might be saying something like "During the time in which unemployment rose, gross domestic product increased as well"—making the point simply that these increases happened at the same time—or the author might mean "Although unemployment rose, gross domestic product increased as well," which helps emphasize that the simultaneous rise in unemployment and gross domestic product is unusual.

Who* and *that

Authors sometimes confuse *who* and *that*, but the usage of these terms may be spelled out in the following rule: With noncollective singular and plural nouns, *who* always refers to people. *That* is used for animals, things, and collective nouns (including those which refer to people—e.g., *audience, group, team*).

Example (noncollective singular noun): The only U.S. President who never married was James Buchanan.

Example (noncollective plural noun): The two U.S. Presidents who were in office during the Great Depression were Herbert Hoover and Franklin Roosevelt.

Example (animal): The platypus is one of the few mammals that lay eggs.

Example (thing): The seismograph is an instrument that is used to measure the intensity of earthquakes.

Example (collective noun): The family that spends money wisely will always have some to spare.

Percent* and *percentage

The word percent, used as an adjective or adverb meaning "of each hundred," usually appears in conjunction with a number (i.e., numerical data). The noun *percentage* is usually used without a number.

Example: The **percentage** of all wage and salary workers who are members of a union has declined. In 1983, the union membership rate was **20.1 percent**; it fell to **12.1 percent** by 2007.

The preferred BLS usage is to present differences in *percentage points* (e.g., "The labor force participation rate of young adults rose 5 percentage points, from 50 percent to 55 percent). *Percent change* is another usage (e.g., "The labor force participation rate of young adults increased 10 percent, from 50 percent to 55 percent).

For information on the use of *percent* and *percentage* in tables, see page 30.

MALE AND FEMALE

When identifying sex, or gender, in text or tables, use the nouns *men* and *women* where appropriate or the adjectives *male* and *female*, but avoid using *male* and *female* as nouns.

SEX OR GENDER?

At one time, there was a fairly clear distinction between sex and gender: "sex" was used mostly to refer to whether a person was male or female, and "gender" was used chiefly linguistically, to refer to the agreement between nouns and adjectives in respect of whether they were masculine, feminine, or, in some languages, neuter. Indeed, BLS tables and charts tended strongly to reflect the former usage, with titles which specified that certain characteristics or quantities were broken down "by sex."

That was before the Internet, however. With the possibility—even likelihood—that Internet searches on the word "sex" would be met with inappropriate or blocked websites, it became clear that economists and other researchers would be better served if they had to search on the word "gender," which anyway had become common in sociological and feminist parlance. Thus, the Bureau began to favor "gender" over "sex" in its tables and charts, and today, except where classic periodic repetitive tables are concerned, "gender" is the preferred term .

EXPRESSING NUMBERS

Most rules for the use of numerals are based on the general idea that the reader understands them more readily than numbers expressed as words, particularly in scientific and technical matters. For special reasons, however, numbers sometimes are spelled out. The following rules cover the most common conditions that require a choice between the use of numerals and the use of words to express numbers. (See the *GPO Style Manual*, chapter 12, for further examples.)

Numerals

Numerals are used for

- A single number of 10 or more within a sentence
  Example: 50 employees; about 40 men; 10 times as large
- A group of two or more numbers, or for related numbers, any one of which is 10 or more, in a single sentence
  Example: Each of 15 major commodities (9 metal and 6 nonmetal) was in supply; *but* Each of nine major commodities (five metal and four nonmetal) was in supply.
- Serial numbers and codes
  Example: BLS Bulletin 2475; NAICS 721191
- Units of time and measurement, including
  - age
  - week, month, year, and clock time (but not decade; see shortly)
  - percent, ratio, degree, and mathematical expressions
  - money
  - measurement (for example, inches, miles, acres, pounds, gallons)

A unit of time or measurement that is always expressed in figures does not affect the use of figures for other numerical expressions within a sentence.

Example: Each of the five girls earned 75 cents an hour; *but* Each of the 15 girls earned 75 cents an hour.

Spell out

- Numbers under 10 before the word *decade*
  Example: Over the past two decades . . . ; *but*, For 10 decades, the CPI . . .
- Isolated numbers under 10 or a group of two or more numbers under 10
  Example: The two boys and three girls.
- The word *million*, or a similar indefinite group term
  Example: a thousand dollars, 20 million, $2.5 billion
- Numbers at the beginning of the sentence and related numbers no further away than three words from the number at the beginning of the sentence.
  Example: Ten months ago. . . . Fifty or sixty years ago.

EQUATIONS

Set equations in Microsoft Word's equation editor. In general, equations may be divided into four components: numerals, variables and constants, operators, and relations. Each of these may appear in any of three forms: in line, as or in a superscript exponent, and as or in a subscript. Regardless of the form, the component is treated the same way.

Numerals

Numerals are set in roman type. Unlike their appearance outside of equations, numerals with four or more digits often do not have commas, although this is not a hard-and-fast rule.

Example: 0 1 17 348 1633 (or 1,633) 21718 (or 21,718) 643942 (or 643,902) 3245625 (or 3,245,625)

Variables and constants

Single-letter variables and constants are set in italics.
Example: x, y, z, a, b, c

Multiple-letter variables and constants are set in roman type.
Example: Emp (abbreviating "unemployment rate"), Urb (denoting "degree of urbanization"), CPI, POF (denoting "probability of failure")

The reason that multiletter variables and constants are set in roman type is the same reason that mathematical functions are set in roman type: to prevent confusion with mathematical products. Thus, sin and cos abbreviate the trigonometric functions sine and cosine, respectively, whereas *sin* and *cos* respectively mean "the product of *s*, *i*, and *n*" and "the product of *c, o,* and *s*." Similarly (to recur to our previous example), an economist might use Emp to denote the unemployment rate, whereas if he or she wrote *Emp*, it would mean the product of *E, m*, and *p* (where these variables would have been previously defined).

Operators

Binary operators are operators that appear between two mathematical quantities. Four main binary operators with special symbols are used in mathematical equations: addition (+), subtraction (–), multiplication (×, ·, or no symbol at all), and division (/ or ÷). (A fifth operator, exponentiation or raising to a power, has no special symbol, but appears simply as a superscript.)

The symbols for addition and subtraction, the × symbol for multiplication, and the ÷ symbol for division have a space before and after them.
Example: $a + 3b$, Emp – $7z$, $c \times d$, $y \div x$

The · symbol for multiplication and the / symbol for division have no space before and after them.
Example: $a \cdot 3b$, m/n

Note: Sometimes the − symbol is used as a unary operator, to signify the negative of a quantity. In that case, no space appears between it and the number following. *Example:* -25, $-x$, $-(7 + 3x)$

Relations

Common relations and their symbols used in equations are equality (=), inequality (≠), "is less than" (<), "is greater than" (>),"is less than or equal to" (≤), and "is greater than or equal to" (≥). In all cases, a space appears before and after the relation.

Example: $x = y$, $4a \neq 3b$, $17wz < m$, $5y > 2$, $x \leq 3t$, $2.7y^3 \geq 6z^2$

Examples of some common mathematical equations

$$A = \pi r^2$$

(area of a circle)

$$a^2 + b^2 = c^2$$

(Pythagorean theorem)

$$x = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$$

(quadratic formula)

$$(x + a)^n = \sum_{k=0}^{n} \binom{n}{k} x^k a^{n-k}$$

(binomial theorem)

PUNCTUATION

Punctuation clarifies the meaning of written language. Well-planned word order results in a minimum of punctuation but requires skillful phrasing to avoid ambiguity and to ensure the intended interpretation.

The general rules regarding punctuation are that the primary aim in the choice and placement of punctuation marks is to clarify the author's thought and that punctuation should be avoided if it does not clarify the text. (A more comprehensive treatment of the subject is found in the *GPO Style Manual*, chapter 8.)

Apostrophe

An apostrophe is used to show possessive case only and not the plural. *Exception*: The apostrophe also is used when it is necessary to prevent confusion. For example, in the sentence, "He received two A's on his report card," the apostrophe is necessary because, without it, *A's* would be *As*, which is a different word.

An apostrophe is not used

- On a shortened form of the name of a union (or on organization titles ending in "s") unless the full title contains the apostrophe
- When citing a span of years
- To designate plurals of acronyms

Example: Carpenters union; during the 1990s; COLAs

Comma

A comma is used

- After each member within a series of three or more words, phrases, letters, or figures except the last one
  Example: Employees of the Bureau of Labor Statistics, the Bureau of Economic Analysis, and the Federal Reserve Board will be present at the meeting.
- After the year in a complete date within a sentence
  Example: June 15, 1996, to June 15, 1998
- Before a conjunction in a medium-sized or long compound sentence
  Example: The unemployment rate declined 2 percentage points over the year, and the resulting increase in consumer confidence was the highest seen in several months.
- Before and after the name of a state or country following a city within a sentence
  Example: The population of London, England, increased.
- In numbers with four or more digits
  Example: 4,000; 50,000
- When one chooses to indicate the importance of a particular phrase in a given sentence
  Example: "He stole the food, because he was hungry" emphasizes that he stole the food (think of the sentence as answering the question "Who stole the food?"); omitting the comma ("He stole the food because he was hungry") places more emphasis on the fact that he was hungry (think of the sentence as answering the question "Why did he steal the food?").

A comma is generally omitted

- Between the month or the season and the year in dates
  Example: January and March 1996; summer 2011; but January, March, and August 2006
- Between two nouns, one of which identifies the other
  Example: the period 1980–1995
- In serial numbers (for example, BLS Bulletin 2475, codes such as industry and occupation codes), decimal digits, fractions, years, and page numbers

Colon

The *Chicago Manual of Style* has a helpful explanation of capitalization after a colon: "When a colon is used within a sentence . . . the first word following the colon is lowercased unless it is a proper name. When a colon introduces two or more sentences . . . , when it introduces a speech in dialogue or an extract . . . , or when it introduces a direct question, the first word following it is capitalized." An example of a colon that introduces two or more sentences is "There were a number of reasons for the spike in oil prices last month: First, the war reduced the world's supply of oil by about 2 percent. Then the hurricane damaged a number of oil refineries. Finally, the heat wave caused the population to refrain from driving."

En dash

Use an en dash

- To indicate a range (e.g., of pages in a book) or a span of time.
  Example: pp. 98–103 (in a reference citation), 1995–2004, March 2008–March 2009
- With a modifier whose components are of "equal weight."
  Example: a public–private consortium, a platinum–iridium alloy. Note that "equal weight" does not imply equal percentages; that is, the public–private consortium may involve any percentages of the two elements, from 1 percent public and 99 percent private to 99 percent public and 1 percent private, and a platinum–iridium alloy may contain any percentages of the two elements. "Equal weight" means simply that the components of the modifier are treated equally grammatically: they are both the same kind of thing.

Periods to indicate ellipses

In excerpted material, insert three periods separated by spaces for text omitted from the beginning or middle of a sentence. (This differs from GPO style.) When

the last part of a sentence has been omitted and a new sentence follows, use four periods before commencing the new sentence. Punctuation appearing within the text immediately preceding an ellipsis should be retained.

Example: Insert three periods separated by spaces for text omitted from
the . . . middle of a sentence. When the last part . . . has been omitted . . .
use four periods . . . .

LISTS

In vertical lists, (1) only complete sentences have ending punctuation; (2) each element of the list should start with a capital letter, unless the element, together with introductory material preceding the list, forms a complete sentence; and (3) the conjunction and should not be inserted before the last item in the list, except when the items preceding the last item end in semicolons. Use a bulleted list when no hierarchical order is implied by the elements in the list. Otherwise, use a numbered or lettered list.

Example:
The following types of workers are most likely to be affected by the restructuring:

- Servers, especially those who have been on the job for less than 1 year
- Assistant managers
- District managers, especially those whose districts have been lagging in sales

Here are three of the many considerations that data collectors need to keep in mind:

- Inclement weather can make it difficult to collect data.
- Whether or not the price of a particular good changes, the quantity that the consumer receives can change.
- Recording data immediately lessens the chances of making errors in recordkeeping.

The Nebraska Department of Labor must

- establish a hot line and website to report suspected violations;
- investigate, in a timely manner, all credible reports of suspected violations;
- have the Commissioner share any violations with the Department of Revenue and the Workers' Compensation Court; and
- provide an annual report to the legislature.

This last example may be written without semicolons at the end of each element, in which case *and* does not appear:
The Nebraska Department of Labor must

- establish a hot line and website to report suspected violations
- investigate, in a timely manner, all credible reports of suspected violations
- have the Commissioner share any violations with the Department of Revenue and the Workers' Compensation Court
- provide an annual report to the legislature.

GENDER AND AGE STEREOTYPING

Since the mid-1970s, U.S. government agencies have been admonished to avoid all gender and age stereotyping. Exceptions generally fall into two categories: (1) the title has been established by legislation or (2) being of a particular gender is a bona fide occupational requirement.

Neither *he* nor *she* should be used as a gender-neutral pronoun. For example, "Each person who responds to this survey needs to indicate whether or not he is employed" is not an acceptable sentence unless no women respond to the survey. Recasting the sentence into the plural is a solution as long as the revision fits the context. Another fix is to use *he* or *she*. Yet a third is to say *she* or *he*.

Nonsexist job titles

With certain exceptions, words such as man, woman, or lady and suffixes that denote one's gender, such as "-ess," are no longer used in job titles in BLS publications. Gender-denoting job titles have been changed in such a way that, for example, "public relations man" is now "public relations practitioner" and "shoe repairman" is now "shoe repairer." In addition, master as a prefix or suffix is no longer used at BLS. For example, in the transportation industry, "yardmaster" is now "yard manager."

Exceptions to this rule are jobs

- for which being a member of a particular gender is a bona fide occupational requirement—for example, the jobs of "leading lady," "leading man," and "showgirl"
- whose titles have been fixed by legislation, international treaty, or other binding legal agreements. These include "master ship," "able seaman," "masseur," and "masseuse."

Avoid age-identifying language in job titles; this includes language such as *boy, girl, junior,* and *senior*. For example, "bus boys" are now called "dining room attendants," and "junior executive" is now "executive trainee."

SPELLING

To avoid the confusion and uncertainty that may be caused by using various authorities on spelling, the Government Printing Office has adopted a single guide. Chapter 5 of the *GPO Style Manual* includes several lists of preferred spellings for difficult words, foreign words, and plural forms.

THREE GRAMMAR "RULES" THAT BEG TO BE BROKEN

Split infinitives

Some grammar experts staunchly believe that infinitives should never be split, but whether or not to split an infinitive really depends on the sentence in question. Sometimes one way is better, and sometimes either way is acceptable. Consider the following versions of the same sentence:

- "Big Bird holds that Cookie Monster can opt to *permanently raise* his cookie consumption by stealing from Elmo."
  This sentence is clear and easy to read.
- "Big Bird holds that Cookie Monster can opt *permanently to raise* his cookie consumption by stealing from Elmo."
  In this sentence, it is the act of opting that is permanent, not the rise in productivity.
- "Big Bird holds that Cookie Monster can opt to *raise permanently* his cookie consumption by stealing from Elmo."
  This sentence gets across the correct meaning, but it comes across as stilted.

There are other ways the sentence could be rewritten, but, in the end, the only form of the sentence that captures the intended meaning without ambiguity or awkwardness is the one with the split infinitive: "Big Bird holds that Cookie Monster can opt to permanently raise his cookie consumption by stealing from Elmo."

Ending a sentence with a preposition

When someone criticized him for ending a sentence with a preposition, Winston Churchill once famously responded by saying, "This is the sort of thing up with which I will not put." With his witty comeback, Churchill showed that some "rules" can cause sentences to be awkward; good rules often make sentences less awkward.

When a preposition is grammatically incorrect, one should remove it, regardless of its position in the sentence.

For example, "Where is it at?" should be rewritten as "Where is it?"

A sentence such as "These are the assumptions that the data are based on" is grammatically correct, but it would fit better in formal writing if it were rewritten as "These are the assumptions on which the data are based."

Starting a sentence with a conjunction

Many students have been taught not to start sentences with *but* or *and*. But most practiced writers occasionally ignore this "rule" because starting a sentence with a conjunction can help the flow of a paragraph or add emphasis to a sentence without sacrificing clarity.

Tables and Exhibits

Much of the information that the Bureau disseminates is presented in statistical tables. A statistical table presents data in an organized and logical manner. The elements of a table—title, column heads, data cells, and so forth—are designed to promote understanding of the data. A table that is too long or too complex can be difficult to read and comprehend. Sometimes a long table can be improved by dividing it into several separate tables. Whenever possible, authors should submit their tables as Excel (.xls) files. *Do not embed tables in the text*; just indicate where you would like the tables to appear.

TYPES OF TABLES

BLS publications use three types of tables: reference tables, text tables, and in-text tabulations.

Reference tables

Reference tables appear at the end of the publication (e.g., *Geographical Profile of Employment and Unemployment*) or are interspersed throughout the publication (*Monthly Labor Review*). In the former case, they are numbered consecutively from the first to the last table presented; in the latter, they are numbered consecutively within articles. In both cases, when cited in the text, they are not intended to be read in full; instead, the text directs the reader to one or more specific cells of the table. In other words, as the name indicates, these tables are used as quantitative reference material, to present data or to amplify or highlight a point made in the text. Following is an example of a reference table:

Table 2. Wage growth of Standard Occupational Classification (SOC) major groups, 2002–08

SOC code	Occupational group	Mean annual wage, 2002	Mean annual wage, 2008	Difference (2008 wage minus 2002 wage)[1]	Percent change
11–0000	Management	$78,870	$100,310	$21,440	27.2
23–0000	Legal	77,330	92,270	14,940	19.3
15–0000	Computer and mathematical	61,630	74,500	12,870	20.9
17–0000	Architecture and engineering	58,020	71,430	13,410	23.1
29–0000	Health care practitioners and technical	53,990	67,890	13,900	25.7
13–0000	Business and financial operations	53,350	64,720	11,370	21.3
19–0000	Life, physical, and social science	52,380	64,280	11,900	22.7
27–0000	Arts, design, entertainment, sports, and media	41,660	50,670	9,010	21.6
25–0000	Education, training, and library	40,160	48,460	8,300	20.7
47–0000	Construction and extraction	36,340	42,350	6,010	16.5
49–0000	Installation, maintenance, and repair	35,780	41,230	5,450	15.2
00–0000	Mean wage for all occupations	35,560	42,270	6,710	18.9
21–0000	Community and social services	34,630	41,790	7,160	20.7
33–0000	Protective service	33,330	40,200	6,870	20.6
41–0000	Sales and related	30,610	36,080	5,470	17.9
51–0000	Production	28,190	32,320	4,130	14.7
43–0000	Office and administrative support	27,910	32,220	4,310	15.4
00–0000	Median wage for all occupations	27,690	32,390	4,700	17.0
53–0000	Transportation and material moving	27,220	31,450	4,230	15.5
31–0000	Health care support	22,410	26,340	3,930	17.5
39–0000	Personal care and service	21,370	24,120	2,750	12.9
37–0000	Building and grounds cleaning and maintenance	20,850	24,370	3,520	16.9
45–0000	Farming, fishing, and forestry	20,220	23,560	3,340	16.5
35–0000	Food preparation and serving related	17,180	20,220	3,040	17.7

[1] Statistically significant at the 90-percent confidence level.

Certain publications that contain reference tables of data from more than one program (such as *The Employment Situation* news release and *Employment and Earnings*) use both letters and numerals as table numbers. In *The Employment Situation*, tables with data from the Current Population Survey are numbered A-1, A-2, A-3, etc., and tables with data from the Current Employment Statistics program are numbered B-1, B-2, B-3, etc. The A tables appear first, then the B

tables. One reason to use this method of numbering tables is that it allows one program to add or delete a table without requiring tables from another program to be renumbered (as might be the case if all the tables were numbered sequentially with only numerals for table numbers).

Text tables

Text tables are meant to be read in full as they are cited in the text. They appear in news releases and within articles in a limited number of BLS publications. Following is an example of a text table:

Text table 3. **Ratios of Consumer Expenditures to Personal Consumption Expenditures averages for 1984-1991 and 1992-2002 for selected expenditure categories (historic methodology)**

Item	1984 to 1991	1992 to 2002
Total food	0.77	0.73
Rent, utilities, and other related goods and services	.92	.89
Household operations	.87	.73
Apparel and services	.65	.54
Transportation	.89	.79
Entertainment	.64	.54
Personal care	.67	.60
Miscellaneous	.29	.20

In-text tabulations

In-text tabulations are brief, are unnumbered and unlettered, and do not have the vertical rules or boxes that characterize the other two types of tables. Like text tables, they are intended to be read in full with the accompanying text; unlike text tables, however, they are introduced as part of the text, often with a colon (i.e., they “flow” with the text). Because an in-text tabulation contains no footnotes, notes, or source notes, any necessary information of this kind must be included in the sentence that introduces the tabulation. Following is an example of an in-text tabulation, embedded within the regular text within which it appears:

seasonally adjusted quarterly JOLTS statistics for the years 2004–2007:

Statistic	*Number of jobs*
Hires	14,821,000
Separations	14,387,000
Quits	8,158,000
Layoffs	5,301,000
Other	928,000
Net change in employment	434,000

As the tabulation shows, in this period’s average quarter 14.821 million workers were hired into new jobs and

ELEMENTS OF A TABLE

Tables have a number of elements; the following table uses numbers to point out these elements:

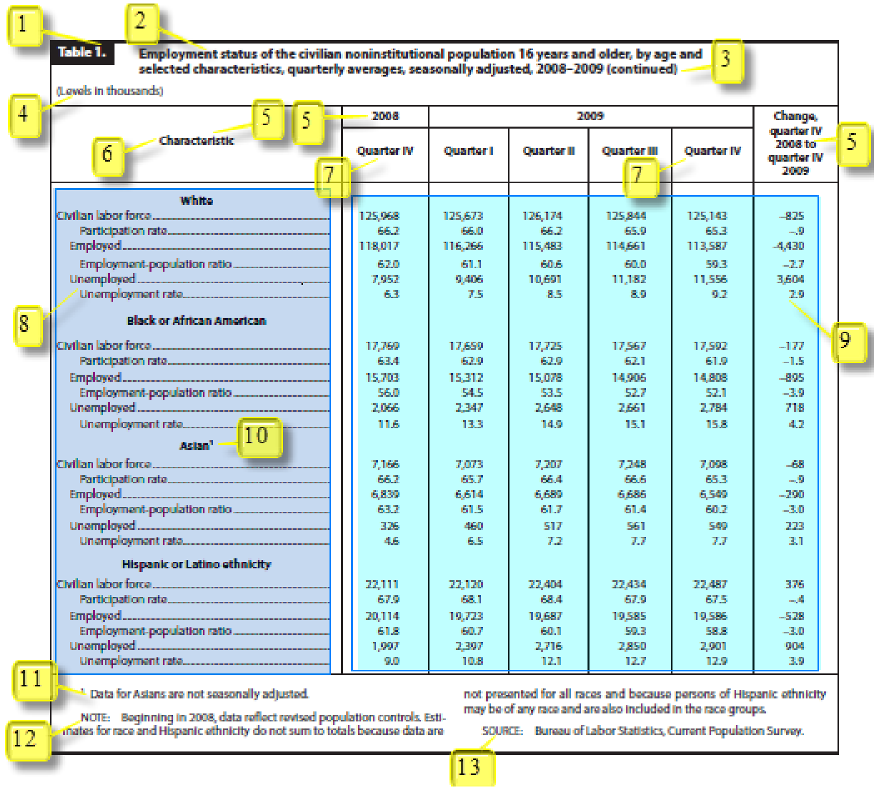


Table 1. Employment status of the civilian noninstitutional population 16 years and older, by age and selected characteristics, quarterly averages, seasonally adjusted, 2008–2009 (continued)

(Levels in thousands)

Characteristic	2008 Quarter IV	2009 Quarter I	2009 Quarter II	2009 Quarter III	2009 Quarter IV	Change, quarter IV 2008 to quarter IV 2009
White						
Civilian labor force	125,968	125,673	126,174	125,844	125,143	–825
Participation rate	66.2	66.0	66.2	65.9	65.3	–.9
Employed	118,017	116,266	115,483	114,661	113,587	–4,430
Employment-population ratio	62.0	61.1	60.6	60.0	59.3	–2.7
Unemployed	7,952	9,406	10,691	11,182	11,556	3,604
Unemployment rate	6.3	7.5	8.5	8.9	9.2	2.9
Black or African American						
Civilian labor force	17,769	17,659	17,725	17,567	17,592	–177
Participation rate	63.4	62.9	62.9	62.1	61.9	–1.5
Employed	15,703	15,312	15,078	14,906	14,808	–895
Employment-population ratio	56.0	54.5	53.5	52.7	52.1	–3.9
Unemployed	2,066	2,347	2,648	2,661	2,784	718
Unemployment rate	11.6	13.3	14.9	15.1	15.8	4.2
Asian[1]						
Civilian labor force	7,166	7,073	7,207	7,248	7,098	–68
Participation rate	66.2	65.7	66.4	66.6	65.3	–.9
Employed	6,839	6,614	6,689	6,686	6,549	–290
Employment-population ratio	63.2	61.5	61.7	61.4	60.2	–3.0
Unemployed	326	460	517	561	549	223
Unemployment rate	4.6	6.5	7.2	7.7	7.7	3.1
Hispanic or Latino ethnicity						
Civilian labor force	22,111	22,120	22,404	22,434	22,487	376
Participation rate	67.9	68.1	68.4	67.9	67.5	–.4
Employed	20,114	19,723	19,687	19,585	19,586	–528
Employment-population ratio	61.8	60.7	60.1	59.3	58.8	–3.0
Unemployed	1,997	2,397	2,716	2,850	2,901	904
Unemployment rate	9.0	10.8	12.1	12.7	12.9	3.9

[1] Data for Asians are not seasonally adjusted.

NOTE: Beginning in 2008, data reflect revised population controls. Estimates for race and Hispanic ethnicity do not sum to totals because data are not presented for all races and because persons of Hispanic ethnicity may be of any race and are also included in the race groups.

SOURCE: Bureau of Labor Statistics, Current Population Survey.

Key:

1 = table number

2 = title text

3 = continuation indicator

4 = headnote with unit of measurement

5 = column heading

6 = stub heading

7 = column subheading

8 = stub entries

9 = data entries

10 = footnote reference

11 = footnote

12 = note

13 = source note

Title

In general, table *titles* should present a brief (no more than two lines if possible) and complete description of the content. Most table titles also include the period covered.

Use Arabic table numbers (or letters, where applicable), followed by a period, to label tables sequentially in the order in which they appear (table 1, 2, 3, . . . ; table A, B, C, . . .). Capitalize the "T" of table and only the first word of the title unless a word is capitalized for another reason. Appendix tables carry a letter prefix; use a different letter for each successive appendix. (Groups of tables from more than one program office, such as appears in the Employment Situation,

use the same format, with a different letter for each program office's tables, as follows: A-1, A-2.•B-1, B-2, etc.)

Percent and percentage

When appearing in tables and charts, *percentage* is usually correct for a title, because no numerical data appear in the title.

Example:

- Layoffs as a percentage of total separations in total nonfarm employment, seasonally adjusted, 2005–2010
- Percentage of workers with hourly wages close to the minimum wage, 1998–2008
- Estimated number and percentage of net exits from the civilian labor force, 1950–2000

However, *percent* is correct for column heads, stubs, and labels, because in those positions it is, in effect, being read along with the numbers appearing in the table or illustrated in the chart.

Change, 2010–2020	
Number	Percent

If an 11 were in the percent column in a row with a stub for "Pharmacists," we would read, "The number of pharmacists is projected to increase 11 percent."

Note that in *percent* is often used in table and chart titles, although no numerical data occur.
Example: Civilian labor force participation rates, by age, 1996, 2006, and projected 2016 (in percent).

Percent distribution (not percentage distribution) is correct, because *percent* is used as an adjective.
Example: Percent distribution of married mothers, by number of children and age of youngest child, 2000 and 2005.

Continued tables

For tables that are more than one page in length, the title should end with "(continued)" on the second and all subsequent pages.

Example:
Table 3. **Fatal occupational injuries in construction, 1995–1996 (continued)**

Column headings

Every column in the table, including the stub (the first column, listing the categories used), must be identified. The stub heading usually is in the singular, such as "Year" or "Industry." Sometimes the stub heading is longer, such as "Occupation of longest job held."

Subheadings

Subheadings in columns derive from the heading under which they appear and should be logically related to those headings. For example, we might have

Labor force	
Employed	Unemployed

but not

Labor force	
Employed	Unemployment rate

or, worse,

Labor force	
Employed	Not in the labor force

Units of measurement

Tables should make clear the *units of measurement* for the data they present. Sometimes the unit is evident from the title, as in "Percent distribution of . . . . " In other cases, the unit is noted in the headnote—for example,

(Thousands of persons 16 years and older)

When several units of measurement are used, the unit should be mentioned in the appropriate column heading or in the stub.

Examples of units in column headings:

Employment (thousands)	
Men	Women

and

Fixed-weighted price index (1982 weights)

Examples of units in stub entries:

- Gross national product (billions of 1982 dollars)
- Total hours (millions)
- Employment (thousands)

Dates

Different dates are shown different ways, depending on the time unit(s) involved and whether the period in question is or is not continuous. Some examples, with years as the unit, are as follows:

2007 and 2008 (exactly 2 years)

2001–2006 or 2001 to 2006 (3 or more consecutive years)

1979–1983 and 1996–2008 (two distinct periods)

selected years, 2000–2008 (2 or more distinct years within a period of consecutive years)

July 1, 1989–July 1, 1998 (specific dates within a period of consecutive years)

Capitalization

Capitalize only proper nouns and the first word of titles, headings, subheadings, and stub entries. "NOTE:" and "SOURCE:" are in all capitals. Footnotes, note, and source are set flush left.

Abbreviations

Use abbreviations sparingly and not at all in titles. In column headings and stubs, names of months may be abbreviated. Use the standard three-letter abbreviations (e.g., Apr, May, Jun).

Data placement

Totals

As a general rule, totals should be placed in the top row of a table. The stub entry for a row of totals should read "Total" or something more explanatory such as "All industries," "All production workers," or a similar expression.

Time series

A time series should be presented chronologically, from the earliest date at the top (or the left) to the most recent date at the bottom (or the right).

Derived data

Derived data, such as *percentages, ratios, or percent changes*, usually are placed to the right of (or below) any basic data appearing in the same table.

Data often are rounded. Rounding serves at least two purposes: helping the reader understand relationships more readily and shrinking the width of the table. Rounding sometimes requires that whole numbers be expressed as decimals; for example, the phrase "in thousands" is appropriate when 895.267 becomes 895.3.

Blank cells

Tables should have no blank cells. Nor should entire columns or rows be filled only with dashes. An en dash, explained in a note, may be used. If there are multiple reasons for the absence of data in cells, consider using footnotes. The following table uses en dashes:

Unemployment rate of persons 18 years and older, by veteran status, age, and period of service, 2010

Age	Gulf War, era II	Gulf War, era I	WWII, Korean War, and Vietnam War era	Nonveterans
Total, 18 years and older	11.5	7.7	8.3	9.4
18 to 24 years	20.9	–	–	17.3
25 to 34 years	13.1	11.5	–	10.0
35 to 44 years	6.0	7.1	–	8.2
45 to 54 years	6.3	6.9	9.1	7.6
55 to 64 years	5.7	6.4	8.7	7.0
65 years and older	–	–	7.2	6.5

NOTE: Dash indicates data not available or not applicable.

Annotation

The Bureau uses only superscript Arabic numerals for *footnote reference* numbers, numbered consecutively from left to right and from top to bottom as one progresses through the table.

Some commonly used abbreviations, such as p for *preliminary*, r for *revised*, and c for *corrected*, may also reference footnotes.

In table titles, in column headings, and in stubs, place the footnote superscript *after* the word or year(s) to which it applies. With data entries, place the superscript *before* the data. (In the case of numerical data, a superscript might be mistaken for a mathematical power of the number if placed after the data.) In a cell with only a superscript in it, center the superscript and put it in parentheses.

Footnotes are located in the body of the table at the bottom, in the following sequence:

- Numbered footnotes
- lettered footnotes (such as *p* and *r*)
- general notes
- sources

Following is an example:

1 Includes persons of Central or South American origin and of other Hispanic origin.
2 Excludes private households.
p = preliminary.
r = revised.
NOTE: Because of rounding, sums of individual items may not equal totals.
SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau.

- All tables should list the source of the data they show.

Revised data

The Bureau frequently publishes seasonal factor adjustments, benchmark revisions, and other revised data. To ensure uniformity in the way data revisions are identified in BLS tables, authors should adhere to the following guidelines:

- Identify a number in an individual cell as revised by placing a superscript r in front of the revised number (e.g., r14.60), and say, in the footnote section "*r* = revised."
- Identify an entire column as containing revised numbers by placing a superscript r in the appropriate column head, and say, in the footnote section, "*r* = revised."
- Identify the use of revised data throughout a table in a note in the footnote section. The note calls attention to the revision and explains it.

Example:
NOTE: Because seasonal factors have been recalculated, data in this table may differ from data previously published. (See technical note, page 26.)

Corrected data

Rarely, data must be corrected. That is, an erroneous number, originally published, must be changed to the correct number. In this case, place a superscript c in front of the corrected number.

EXHIBITS

Exhibits take two forms in BLS publications. Some exhibits are similar to tables in their basic appearance (with titles, headers, etc.) and present data in a matrix, but the data presented in an exhibit are mostly or entirely nonnumeric (e.g., definitions, formulas, lists, side-by-side comparisons, yes-or-no statements). In other words, numeric data should be presented in a table, but a similar presentation of nonnumeric data is an exhibit. Other exhibits contain images that are copied from other sources—for example, a page of a BLS survey form. Exhibits are numbered in the same way tables are numbered.

Following are some examples of exhibits that have been used in BLS publications:

Exhibit 1. Comparing five BLS sources of compensation data

Data characteristics	Employment Cost Index of the National Compensation Survey	Hourly and weekly earnings from the Current Employment Statistics survey	Annual and weekly earnings from the Quarterly Census of Employment and Wages	Usual weekly earnings from the Current Population Survey	Real hourly compensation in nonfarm business sector
Timeliness and respondent characteristics					
How frequently is the information published?	Less than a month after the end of each quarter	Monthly within 3 weeks of the survey reference period	Weekly wages reported quarterly and annual wages reported annually; both published with a lag of about 6 months	Less than a month after the end of each quarter	About a month after the end of each quarter
Who provides information?	Nonfarm establishments	Nonfarm establishments	All nonfarm and agricultural establishments covered by Federal or State unemployment insurance programs	Households	Nonfarm establishments, households, and government administrative records
Private households included?	No	No	No	Yes	No
Nonprofit organizations included?	Yes	Yes	Some	Yes	No
Government employees included?	State and local only	No	Federal, State, and local	Federal, State, and local	Only those in government enterprises
Number of units?	8,300 private establishments and 800 government establishments[1]	About 350,000 private-sector establishments	More than 8 million private and government establishments	60,000 households	Not applicable
Worker, job, and employer characteristics					
All occupations included?	Yes	No, workers in nonproduction occupations and supervisors are excluded	Yes	Yes	Yes
Estimates available by occupation?	Yes	No	No	Yes	No
Full- and part-time distinctions possible?	Yes[2]	No	No	Yes	No
Demographic information available?	No	No	No	Yes	No
Estimates available by industry?	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Some
Collective bargaining status available?	Yes	No	No	Yes	No
Self-employed business owners included?	No	No	No	No	Yes
Selected forms of compensation included					
Wages and salaries before taxes and other deductions?	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Employer 401(k) contributions?	Yes	No	Yes, in some States	No	Yes
Stock options	No	No	Yes	No	Yes
Employer costs for other benefits?	Yes	No	No	No	Yes
Characteristics of benefits plans?	Yes	No	No	No	No
Commissions?	Yes	Yes, if earned and paid at least monthly	Yes	Yes, if usual	Yes
Tips?	No	No	Yes	Yes, if usual	Yes
Bonuses?	Yes	Yes, if earned and paid each pay period	Yes	Yes, if usual	Yes
Cash value of meals and other payments in kind?	No	No	Yes, in most States	No	Yes

[1] The number of sampled establishments shown includes only the establishments included in the Employment Cost Index component of the National Compensation Survey. The total number of establishments in the National Compensation Survey sample is more than 22,000.

[2] Although the National Compensation Survey collects information about workers' full- or part-time status, BLS does not estimate Employment Cost Indexes for full- and part-time workers separately.

Exhibit 1. Components of the CPI retaining the arithmetic mean (Laspeyres) formula

Selected shelter services
Rent of primary residence
Owner's equivalent rent of primary residence
Housing at school, excluding board
Selected utilities and government charges
Electricity
Maintenance of residential water and sewerage
Telephone services, local charges
Utility natural gas service
State and local registration, license, and motor vehicle property tax
Cable television
Selected medical care services
Physicians' services
Eyeglasses and eye care
Hospital services
Dental services
Services by other medical professionals
Nursing homes and adult day care

Using Notes and Citing Sources

When authors paraphrase, use facts from, or directly quote others, they must provide proper attribution. Scholarly ethics, copyright laws, and courtesy to the reader necessitate this practice. Whether a source is published or unpublished, in printed or electronic form, the author should make every effort to cite the source completely and accurately. The primary concern is to give sufficient information to readers so that they can consult the source. This section describes notes (endnotes and footnotes) and lists of references (bibliographies).

NOTES

In BLS publications, notes appear at the bottom of the page (footnotes) or at the end of the article or other written text (endnotes). In tables and graphics (charts, maps, illustrations, or photographs), notes appear at the bottom and are part of the table or graphic.

The purpose of notes is to document the source of information, to give a cross-reference to another part of the publication or to another work, or to present additional information that is essential to the understanding of the text. For example, an author might use a note to reference a particular BLS survey or program (or other government agency, such as the Census Bureau) or to reference outside or secondary sources, which must be cited accurately in order to credit them properly.

A note might also be used to elaborate on, or further explain, a point made in the text. Most BLS publications use notes, but some use a list of references or both. For the most part, notes in BLS publications follow the format given in chapter 14 of The *Chicago Manual of Style*, 16th ed. An exception is "p." and "pp.," which BLS uses to designate page numbers, whereas *Chicago* does not.

Determining when a note is needed is a matter of judgment and cannot be prescribed by a general rule. Notes should not be overused or underused. Authors are responsible for the completeness and accuracy of notes that appear in their publications, and they should make sure that all notes have been checked against

the source.

All references should be given in full the first time they are mentioned.

Within the text, references to notes are numbered sequentially, beginning with the number 1, and are set in superscript (raised) form. Place the superscript after all punctuation marks except long dashes (sometimes called "em dashes"). When possible, notes should be combined. For example, several citations can often be combined into one note, with the superscript that references them placed at the end of the sentence.

Avoid placing reference numbers in article titles, chart and table titles, section headings, and column and row headings in tables, as well as in text tabulations. Depending on the publication, author acknowledgments are placed either toward the beginning of the publication or at the beginning of the notes section and are not numbered. Information about the author is placed on the first page at a location apart from the text, or at the end of the article, depending on the publication, and is unnumbered. Asterisks and other note markers are not used. Avoid notes with text tabulations.

Examples of various kinds of notes follow.

Books

When citing a book, include the following elements, in order:

1. Name of author or editor, with first name first. If no author or editor is given, use the name of the institution.
2. Title and subtitle of book, in italics
3. Editor or translator (if any)
4. Edition (except when the book is a first edition)
5. Publishing information: city (followed by a colon), publisher, date of publication, all within parentheses. If the city is well known, such as New York, the state name is unnecessary. If it may be confused with another city of the same name, the abbreviation of the state, province, or (sometimes) country is added. *Washington* is traditionally followed by *DC*. Otherwise, give the city and state (with two-letter Postal abbreviations). If the publisher is located in two cities, such as London and New York, give only the first one listed in the documentation. (London: Routledge.)
6. Page, table, and chapter numbers, as appropriate, following the parentheses and a comma. If the citation refers to an entire book, page numbers are not necessary.

Examples of citations of an entire book

Books with an author or coauthors:

[1] William H. Greene and David A. Hensher, *Modeling Ordered Choices: A Primer* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 2010), p. 265.

[2] Robert Shimer, *Labor Markets and Business Cycles* (Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press, 2010), pp. 101–105.

Contributions to a multiauthor book:

[3] Michael A. Stoll, "Workforce Development in the Information Technology Age," in Edwin Meléndez, ed., *Communities and Workforce Development* (Kalamazoo, MI: W. E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research, 2004), pp. 191–212.

Editor(s) or translator(s) instead of author:

[4] Christi Favor, Gerald Gaus, and Julian Lamont, eds., *Essays on Philosophy, Politics and Economics: Integration and Common Research Projects* (Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press, 2010), p. 19.

Periodicals and newspapers

Include the following elements, in order, when citing a periodical or newspaper:

1. Full name of author or authors, with first name first
2. Title and subtitle of article or column, enclosed in quotation marks

3. Name of periodical or newspaper in italics, with the name of the publisher in the case of lesser known periodicals
4. Publication information (volume number, issue number, date, etc.)
5. Page number or numbers (where appropriate)

Examples of citations of periodicals and newspapers

[1] Andrei Shleifer and Robert Vishny, "Fire Sales in Finance and Macroeconomics," *Journal of Economic Perspectives* 25, no. 1 (Winter 2011), pp. 32–35.

[2] Terrence M. McMenamin, "A Time to Work: Recent Trends in Shift Work and Flexible Schedules," *Monthly Labor Review* (December 2007), pp. 8–11.

[3] Harold Meyerson, "The Unshared Recovery," *The Washington Post*, March 9, 2011, p. A23.

Authors should not translate or Americanize names of foreign publications; use the foreign spelling instead: *Le Monde*, not *The World*; *The Labour Gazette*, not *The Labor Gazette*.

Government publications

BLS authors frequently cite government publications, which have their own style of documentation. Such publications often do not list any author. The title of the publication is usually listed first, followed by the bulletin or other publication number (if given), and then the name of the organization and date of publication, in parentheses. If appropriate, page numbers are given at the end of the citation. Note that "U.S. Department of Labor" is usually omitted when referring to the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics.

BLS publications

[1] *Geographic Profile of Employment and Unemployment*, 2003, Bulletin 2591 (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, September 2007).

[2] "The Role of Younger and Older Business Establishments in the U.S. Labor Market," *Issues in Labor Statistics*, Summary 10-09 (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, August 2010).

[3] *100 Years of U S Consumer Spending: Data for the Nation, New York City, and Boston*, Report 991 (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, May 2006), p. 43.

[4] Susan L. King and Sylvia A. Johnson-Herring, "Selecting a Sample of Households for the Consumer Expenditure Survey," in *Consumer Expenditure Survey Anthology, 2008* (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2008), pp. 17–19.

Other government publications

[4] *Summary Social, Economic, and Housing Characteristics*, PHC-2-2 United States Summary (U.S. Census Bureau, November 2002), p. 38.

[5] *Health, United States, 2010: With Special Feature on Death and Dying* (National Center for Health Statistics, 2011), pp. 24–27.

[6] William J. Hussar and Tabitha M. Bailey, *Projections of Education Statistics to 2019*, 38th ed. (National Center for Education Statistics, March 2011), pp. 78–80.

Acts of Congress

[7] Homeland Security Act of 2002, Pub. L. No. 107-296 Stat. 2135 (2002).

Note that an act of Congress is first published separately (as in the preceding example) and later incorporated into the United States Code (U.S.C.), as follows:

[8] Homeland Security Act of 2002, 6 U.S.C. § 101 (2002).

News releases

[9] *The Employment Situation: February 2011*, USDL-11-0271 (U.S. Department of Labor, March 4, 2011).

Other citations

The examples that follow are for somewhat less common sources, such as unpublished dissertations or papers presented at a conference.

Dissertations

[1] Milan Patel, "The Development of Domestic Bond Markets: Interpreting the Mexican Experience" (Ph.D. diss., London School of Economics, 2008).

Papers presented at a meeting or conference

[2] Michael Elsby, Bart Hobijn, and Ayşegűl Şahin, "The Labor Market in the Great Recession" (paper presented at the Brookings Panel on Economic Activity, March 18–19, 2010).

Use of shortened title for second reference

The second time a source is cited in the notes, use a shortened title, rather than *op cit*. or *loco cit*. If the same source is cited consecutively, use "ibid." (not italicized). Consecutive references often can be avoided by combining notes.

First reference, one author

[3] Rachel Krantz-Kent, "Where People Worked, 2003 to 2007," *Issues in Labor Statistics*, Summary 09–07 (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2009).

Second reference (not consecutive), one author

[14] Krantz-Kent, "Where People Worked."

First reference, two authors

[8] T. Alan Lacey and Benjamin Wright, "Occupational Employment Projections to 2018," *Monthly Labor Review*, November 2009, pp. 82–123.

Second reference (not consecutive), two authors

[10] Lacey and Wright, "Occupational Employment Projections."

First reference, more than two authors

[1] Sheryl L. Konigsberg, James R. Spletzer, and David M. Talan, "Business Employment Dynamics: Tabulations by Size of Employment Change," *Monthly Labor Review*, April 2009, pp. 19–20.

Second reference (not consecutive), more than two authors:

[5] Konigsberg et al., "Business Employment Dynamics," p. 22.

Consecutive references to the same:

[6] Ibid., p. 25.

[7] Ibid., pp. 27–29.

Electronic media citations

As the number of online sources and electronic media grow, they are more widely used and accepted as legitimate sources of information and are cited accordingly. Electronic media citations contain the same elements as traditional citations (of books, journals, etc.). The type of medium being cited (CD–ROM,

disk, tape, etc.) should also usually be included. Online citations require the addition of uniform resource locators (URLs).

Access dates provide little useful information and are no longer used in BLS publications. Instead, use "no date" when there is no obvious publication or last revision date.

Online books

[1] Adam Smith, *An Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations* (London, 1776), pp. 40–50, http://www.econlib.org/library/Smith/smWN.html.

Online periodicals and newspapers

[2] Jonathan C. Weinhagen, "A New, Experimental System of Indexes from the PPI Program," *Monthly Labor Review* 134, no. 2 (February 2011), pp. 3–24, http://www.bls.gov/opub/mlr/2011/02/art1full.pdf.

[3] Paul Sullivan, "When to Buy or Sell? Don't Trust Your Instincts," *New York Times*, March 11, 2011, http://www.nytimes.com/2011/03/12/your-money/stocks-and-bonds/12wealth.html?_r=1&src=me&ref=businessPublished.

Electronic books

[1] Jane Austen, *Pride and Prejudice* (New York: Penguin Classics, 2007), Kindle edition, chap. 15.

[2] Jane Austen, *Pride and Prejudice* (New York: Penguin Classics, 2008), PDF e-book, chap. 17.

Government publications

[3] "State Employment Changes, January 2011," *The Editor's Desk* (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, March 11, 2011), http://www.bls.gov/opub/ted/2011/ted_20110311.htm.

[4] "Mexico's Changing Marketing System for Fresh Produce: Emerging Markets, Practices, Trends, and Issues" (U.S. Department of Agriculture, October 2002), http://www.ams.usda.gov/AMSv1.0/getfile?dDocName=STELDEV3101481& acct=wdmgeninfo.

[5] *The Employment Situation: February 2011*, USDL-11-0271 (U.S. Department of Labor, March 4, 2011), http://www.bls.gov/news.release/archives/empsit_03042011.pdf.

CDs, DVDs, and other fixed media

[1] The *Chicago Manual of Style*, 15th ed. (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 2003), CD-ROM, 1.4.

Citations of books, reports, and other publications on CD-ROM or other fixed media should indicate the medium.

LISTS OF REFERENCES OR SOURCES

Some BLS publications include a list of references or sources (a bibliography) that the author consulted in composing the work. Such lists differ from notes. A list of references is displayed in alphabetical order by the author's last name (by the last name of the first author listed in a multiauthor book). Page numbers referenced from the source are not included in a list of references. However, for journal articles or contributions from a multiauthor book, the page numbers of the entire article or chapter are given. In addition, the main elements of citations in a list of references are separated by periods, rather than commas. As with notes, the main criterion for the reference list is to include all relevant information about the source, in the following order:

1. Name of author(s) or editor(s), with last name of first author or editor listed first, followed by name(s) of coauthor(s) or editor(s), with first name first. If no author or editor is given, use the name of the institution.

2. Title and subtitle of book, in italics
3. Edition (except when the book is a first edition)
4. Editor or translator listed in addition to author(s)
5. Publishing information: city (followed by a colon), publisher, date of publication
6. The list of references that follows includes many of the same sources used in the previous section, but displayed in the style of traditional bibliographies.

Books

Author or coauthors:

Greene, William H., and David A. Hensher. *Modeling Ordered Choices: A Primer*. New York: Cambridge University Press, 2010.

Shimer, Robert. *Labor Markets and Business Cycles*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press, 2010.

Contribution to a book

Stoll, Michael A. "Workforce Development in the Information Technology Age." In *Communities and Workforce Development*. Edited by Edwin Meléndez, pp. 191–212. Kalamazoo, MI: W.E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research, 2004.

Editor(s) or translator(s) instead of author

Favor, Christi, Gerald Gaus, and Julian Lamont, eds. *Essays on Philosophy, Politics and Economics: Integration and Common Research Projects*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press, 2010.

Periodicals and newspapers

Shleifer, Andrei, and Robert Vishny. "Fire Sales in Finance and Macroeconomics." *Journal of Economic Perspectives* 25, no. 1 (Winter 2011), pp. 29–48.

McMenamin, Terrence M. "A Time to Work: Recent Trends in Shift Work and Flexible Schedules." *Monthly Labor Review* (December 2007), pp. 3–15.

Meyerson, Harold. "The Unshared Recovery." *The Washington Post*, March 9, 2011.

Hard-copy government publications

BLS publications

U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. *Geographic Profile of Employment and Unemployment*, 2003. Bulletin 2591, September 2007.

U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. "The Role of Younger and Older Business Establishments in the U.S. Labor Market." *Issues in Labor Statistics*. Summary 10-09, August 2010.

U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. *100 Years of U S Consumer Spending: Data for the Nation, New York City, and Boston*. Report 991, May 2006.

Other hardcopy government publications

U S Census Bureau Summary Social, Economic, and Housing Characteristics PHC-2-2 United States Summary, November 2002.

National Center for Health Statistics, Centers for Disease Control. *Health, United States, 2010: With Special Feature on Death and Dying*. 2011.

Hussar, William J., and Tabitha M. Bailey. *Projections of Education Statistics to 2019*. 38th ed. Washington, DC: National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, March 2011.

Other citations

Dissertations

Patel, Milan. "The Development of Domestic Bond Markets: Interpreting the Mexican Experience." Ph.D. diss., London School of Economics, 2008.

Papers presented at a meeting or conference

Elsby, Michael, Bart Hobijn, and Ayşegűl Şahin. "The Labor Market in the Great Recession." Paper presented at the Brookings Panel on Economic Activity, March 18–19, 2010.

Electronic media citations

Online periodicals and newspapers

Weinhagen, Jonathan C. "A New, Experimental System of Indexes from the PPI Program." *Monthly Labor Review* 134, no. 2 (February 2011), pp. 3–24. http://www.bls.gov/opub/mlr/2011/02/art1full.pdf.

Sullivan, Paul. "When to Buy or Sell? Don't Trust Your Instincts." *The New York Times*, March 11, 2011. http://www.nytimes.com/2011/03/12/your-money/stocks-and-bonds/12wealth.html?_r=1&src=me&ref=businessPublished.

Electronic books

Austen, Jane. *Pride and Prejudice*. New York: Penguin Classics, 2008. PDF e-book.

Electronic government publications

King, Susan L., and Sylvia A. Johnson-Herring. "Selecting a Sample of Households for the Consumer Expenditure Survey." In *Consumer Expenditure Survey Anthology, 2008* (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2008). http://www.bls.gov/cex/anthology08/csxanth2.pdf.

U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. "State Employment Changes, January 2011." *The Editor's Desk*, March 11, 2011. http://www.bls.gov/opub/ted/2011/ted_20110311.htm.

U.S. Department of Agriculture. "Mexico's Changing Marketing System for Fresh Produce: Emerging Markets, Practices, Trends, and Issues" (October 2002). http://www.ams.usda.gov/AMSv1.0/getfile?dDocName=STELDEV3101481&acct=wdmgeninfo.

U.S. Department of Labor. *The Employment Situation: February 2011*. USDL-11-0271, March 4, 2011. http://www.bls.gov/news.release/archives/empsit_03042011.pdf.

Sample list of references

Resources

Elsby, Michael, Bart Hobijn, and Ayşegűl Şahin. "The Labor Market in the Great Recession." Paper presented at the Brookings Panel on Economic Activity, March 18–19, 2010.

Favor, Christi, Gerald Gaus, and Julian Lamont, eds. *Essays on Philosophy, Politics and Economics: Integration and Common Research Projects*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press, 2010.

Greene, William H., and David A. Hensher. *Modeling Ordered Choices: A Primer*. New York: Cambridge University Press, 2010.

McMenamin, Terrence M. "A Time to Work: Recent Trends in Shift Work and Flexible Schedules." *Monthly Labor Review* (December 2007), pp. 3–15.

Meyerson, Harold. "The Unshared Recovery." *The Washington Post*, March 9, 2011.

National Center for Health Statistics. *Health, United States, 2010: With Special Feature on Death and Dying*. 2011.

Patel, Milan. “The Development of Domestic Bond Markets: Interpreting the Mexican Experience.” Ph.D. diss., London School of Economics, 2008.

Shimer, Robert. *Labor Markets and Business Cycles*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press, 2010.

Shleifer, Andrei, and Robert Vishny. “Fire Sales in Finance and Macroeconomics.” *Journal of Economic Perspectives* 25, no. 1 (Winter 2011), pp. 29–48.

Stoll, Michael A. “Workforce Development in the Information Technology Age.” In *Communities and Workforce Development*. Edited by Edwin Meléndez, 191–212. Kalamazoo, MI: W. E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research, 2004.

Sullivan, Paul. “When to Buy or Sell? Don’t Trust Your Instincts.” *The New York Times*, March 11, 2011. http://www.nytimes.com/2011/03/12/your-money/stocks-and-bonds/

U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. *Geographic Profile of Employment and Unemployment, 2003*. Bulletin 2591. Washington, DC: Government Printing Office, September 2007.

———. “The Role of Younger and Older Business Establishments in the U.S. Labor Market.” *Issues in Labor Statistics*. Summary 10-09, August 2010.

U.S. Census Bureau. *Summary Social, Economic, and Housing Characteristics*. PHC-2-2 United States Summary, November 2002.

U.S. Department of Agriculture. “Mexico’s Changing Marketing System for Fresh Produce: Emerging Markets, Practices, Trends, and Issues” (October 2002). http://www.ams.usda.gov/AMSv1.0/getfile?dDocName=STELDEV3101481&acct=wdmgeninfo.

Weinhagen, Jonathan C. “A New, Experimental System of Indexes from the PPI Program.” *Monthly Labor Review* (February 2011), pp. 3–24. http://www.bls.gov/opub/mlr/2011/02/art1full.pdf.

Appendix: Sources of Style Standards

Following are the three chief sources upon which BLS standards of style are based, in order of preference:

1. This edition of *A Matter of Style*
2. *GPO Style Manual*. U.S. Government Printing Office, 2008.
3. The *Chicago Manual of Style*, 16th ed. Chicago and London, University of Chicago Press, 2010.

Other valuable resources are as follows:

The *American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language*, 5th ed. Boston, Houghton Mifflin Harcourt, 2011.

Bernstein, Theodore M. *The Careful Writer: A Modern Guide to English Usage*. New York, Atheneum, 1965.

Brusaw, Charles T., Gerald J. Alred, and Walter E. Oliu. *The Business Writer's Handbook*, 9th ed. New York, St. Martin's Press, 2009.

Brusaw, Charles T., Gerald J. Alred, and Walter E. Oliu. *Handbook of Technical Writing*, 9th ed. Boston, Bedford/St. Martin's, 2009.

Fowler, H. W. A *Dictionary of Modem English Usage*, 2nd ed. Rev. New York, Oxford University Press, 1991.

Merriam-Webster Online Dictionary, www.merriam-webster.com/netdict.htm.

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